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RESEARCH SYNTHESIS ON SELF-ESTEEM, RELATIONSHIP TO ACHIEVEMENT AND SUCCESSFUL INTERVENTIONS FOR ADOLESCENTS THAT HAVE EXCEPTIONAL EDUCATION NEEDS

by

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People say one person can't make a difference in the world. But I know that isn't true, because I've seen the difference you made in the lives of those around you.

Anonymous

You've encouraged me to learn, to grow, and to become a better person.

Anonymous

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Thanks for believing in me.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Schools provided many services to support high school students to deal with divorce, alcoholism, drug use, and eating disorders. Administrators, teachers, and counselors were trained to cope with the side effects of these problems like running away, and suicide. Programs as Individualized Support Program (ISP), and Student Alcoholic Program (SAP) were established within schools. Some programs even issued credits toward graduation for participation in these groups. Support groups were also set-up outside of school in hospitals as outpatients or as inpatients. States raised the drinking ages. Laws were passed prohibiting the sale of drug paraphernalia.

Still high absenteeism occurred. Truancy persisted. Schools were not a place teenagers wanted to spend time. "What was the point of trying to accomplish anything?" asked an unhappy teenager. Even with special education support, failures existed. Students perceived teachers as 'difficult people' out to make their life troublesome.

Despite all these programs and support, school offices were cluttered with students waiting to see administraters to handle their inappropriate behavior. Suspensions, detentions, phone calls home, and

lectures were administered. Failures and low grades were awarded, because participation in classes was lacking, or participation was insufficient to pass the class. What effect were these places called schools having on students?

Football players, basketball players, soccer players, volleyball players, wrestlers, swimmers, and golfers found positive experiences in schools with award banquets, metals, trophoies, letters, and dances to honor these athletes. But as these rewards were accepted, the recepient responded, "I really don't deserve this award."

'A' students, math wizards, debaters, writers, and artisits competed in debates, math contests, art contests, and for grade points. Metals, trophies, class number, displays, honor roll placements, and scholarships were awarded for achievements in these areas. Yet, students felt embarrassed and undeserving of these awards.

Another group of the school population was special education students. Special education students were aware of their existence in below average -- below average academics or below average behaviors. What effect can this have on the students' self-esteem? How courageous special education

students were to return daily to a place where many perceived that they functioned below average.

Purpose

The school population was composed of a body of people with great amounts of false humility or low self-esteem. So the author, as an educator, reviewed literature on self-esteem. Specifically, the literature was searched for five aspects of self-esteem: (1) self-esteem's cognitive development during adolescence; (2) the relation between achievement and self-esteem; (3) the relation between social support and self-esteem; (4) the self-esteem of special education students; and finally (5) practical interventions that can be implemented in the classroom by a teacher.

Scope and Limitations

The author found a plethora of information about self-esteem literature on secondary students. Research was limited to literature published during the eighties. An exception to this limitation was made to include frequently cited literature.

Adolescents in this review of literature ranged from ages 9-18 years old. This age range encompassed three distinct groups; early, middle, and late adolescences.

Definitions

For clarification, self-esteem was differentiated from self-concept. Self-esteem was a valuing process that rated self-concepts as good or bad. Two components of self-esteem were self-competence (self-confidence) and self-worth (self-respect).

Summary

In order to meet students' needs for a positive effect on self-esteem, teachers needed to find methods, techniques, and material that promoted enhancement of self-esteem. Teachers were also responsible to teach the content of curriculum. So the author sought to review research from literature to evaluate what has worked; what has failed; and what has had no effect on self-esteem. This study examined research on self-esteem that was effected by academic achievement social support, and cognitive development of special education secondary students. Research on classroom intervention was also reviewed.

CHAPTER II

Literatures' Definitions of Self-Esteem

Literature made a distinction between self-concept and self-esteem (Branden, 1988; Byrne, 1983; Juhasz, 1985; Richman, Clark, & Brown, 1985). The distinction separated the descriptive and nonjudgemental aspects of self-concept from the evaluative aspects of self-esteem (Branden, 1988; Juhasz, 1985; Richman et al., 1985; Schilling, 1986). Juhasz (1985) explained that self-esteem has a value component which was not included in self-concept. Richman et al. (1985) clarified self-esteem as the evaluative component of self-concept that referred to one's feelings of self-worth.

Self-esteem included two basic psychological processes--the process of self-evaluation and the process of self-worth (Branden, 1988; Juhasz, 1985). Self-worth incorperated a view of one's self as being master of one's actions--a sense of competence based on intrinsic, rather than extrinsic determinants (Branden, 1988). Self-evaluation judged self's ability to cope with the challenges of life and self's right to be happy. Branden (1988) explained that an emotion was the product of an evaluation. Feelings reflected an appraisal of the beneficial or harmful relationship of some aspect of reality to oneself.

Literature also made a distinction between global self-esteem and multidimensional self-esteem. Berne (1987) defined global self-esteem as a general thinking of oneself as a good or bad person. Schilling (1986) defined multidimensional self-esteem to consist of the perceptions, that we have of ourselves in a number of areas. How we perceived ourselves physically, intellectually, socially, illustrated multidimensional self-esteem. Our self-esteem was determined by the evaluations we placed in those areas (Schilling, 1986).

The definition of self-esteem, that was quoted most, was Coopersmith's definition (Covington, 1984; Gurney, 1987; Richman et al., 1985; Schilling, 1986; Walker & Greene, 1986). Coopersmith (1967) defined self-esteem as:

> "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself - it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which an individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy."

Although there seemed to be wide acceptance of the above definition among self-theorists, the

literature revealed no clear, concise, and universally accepted operational definition of self-esteem (Byrne, 1983; Domino & Blumberg, 1987). However, the idea, that we were not born with self-esteem, instead we must discover it, was accepted (Branden, 1988; Greenwald, 1988; Hart, 1988; Harter, 1988; Lapsley & Power, 1988; Marton, Golombek, Stein, & Korenblum, 1988; Searey, 1986). Self-esteem evolved through the developmental stages of growth (Jaquish & Ripple, 1980).

Self-Esteem in Adolescents

The purpose of this seciton was to describe the development of self-esteem during adolescence. Harter (1988) edited a book, that discussed the ways in which self developed. Harter (1988) focused on how the child's sense of overall worth as a person was constructed. The four theories of self-esteem development discussed were ability theory, significant other theory, cognitive development theory, and social-cognitive theory. Also discussed in this section were mechanisms that protected self-esteem.

The first theory that Harter (1988) discussed, was ability theory of James, an early theorists. James identified five domains of abilities; scholastic competence, athletic competence, social acceptance, physical appearance, and behavioral conduct, that were

used to identify self (Harter, 1988). Ability was widely perceived as a major cause of success, and success in turn reflected well on the individual (Covington, 1984; Harter, 1988). For many students, the mere possession of high ability signified worthiness.

Harter (1988) reported that James' study also indicated that self-esteem was enhanced by reducing one's importance rating or by increasing one's competence in domains. Perceptions of ability were critical to this self-protection process. Two domains of ability were particularly difficult to discount; behavioral conduct and scholastic competence (Harter, 1988).

Hart (1988) then reviewed Cooley's looking-glass self theory or social theory. Cooley was another early cognitive development theorist. Cooley's theory stated that if others felt that one was a worthwhile person, then self adopted that attitude toward self, and experienced high self-worth (Hart, 1988). Conversely, if others have little regard for self, then one's self-esteem was quite low. Hart (1988) found that adolescents considered the various characteristics of self in light of their importance for soical interactions with others, and their influence on the self's attractiveness to others.

Cooley's theory of others' role in developing self-esteem was broaden to identify the others that influenced self-esteem most. Findings indicated that parental regard was highly predictive of self-esteem for adolescents. Classmates' support followed closely as a predictor of adolescents' self-esteem (Harter, 1985a). Close friend and teacher were found to be least predictive of self-esteem (Harter, 1985a).

During adolesence, self developed somewhat different relations to one's parents, one's friends, one's teachers, one's romantic interests, and one's goals. The developmental task for adolescents was to consolidate these multiple selves to construct an integrated identity. Adolescents may be bothered by the difference selves that manifest one attribute in one role and another attribute in a different role. Harter (1988) revealed findings that this type of concern and preoccupation increased from early to late adolescence.

Cognitive theorist dealt with the adolescents cognitive development to handle this awareness of self in different roles (Fischer, 1980; Greenwald, 1988; Rosenberg, 1986). In Piaget's (1986) studies of child development, the growth of the child's self was blended with the growth of the child's skills in constructing physical reality. Therefore, the

adolescents' perceptions of the various roles were only as good as the adolescents were skilled at constructing the physical reality of those roles.

Rosenberg (1986), a cognitive development theorist, reported that self-esteem was volatile during adolescence, because of four aspects of self, that worried adolescents. First, adolescents were concerned about the impression that they made. Second, adolescents were concerned about the contradictory feedback that they received. Third, adolescents were concerned with their adopting and abandoning of a variety of roles. Finally, adolescents were concerned about their ambiguous status as adult or child (Rosenberg, 1986). Adolescence was a very confusing and uncertain time period, while cognition developed.

Fischer's (1980) cognitive development theory stated that young adolescents were capable of constructing "single abstractions" about self, but they were unable to relate each of these abstractions about self to one another. The cognitve skills needed to compare such abstractions about the self appeared in middle adolescence. During middle adolescence, the adolescents became able to detect that there were opposites within one's self. But cognitive

development still needed to develop further to unify these various roles that one participated.

In later adolescence, adolescents became capable to form abstractions, that integrated the various roles into meaningful, noncontradictory, higher order abstractions abouit self (Fischer, 1980). Therefore, conflicts from middle adolescence were resolved. The adolescents now realized that these seemingly conflicting roles were compatible. The older adolescents have adopted a philosophical view that behaving differently in different roles was normal. The older adolescents also realized that self was flexible, adaptive, sensitive, open, and appropriate (Fischer, 1980).

Greenwald (1988) indicated that three mutually supporting interpretations showed why the establishment of self-esteem belonged in the cognitive processes. First, the high self-esteem indivduals' expectation for success were a product of their ability to problem solve (Breckler & Greenwald, 1986). Second, positive self-esteem was associated with a positive self-concept (Greenwald, 1980). Third, self-esteem was an attitude. A positive attitude toward self was most essential to one's adaptive success (Pratkanis, Breckler, & Greenwald, 1989).

Hart (1988) studied adolescents' cognitive awareness of self in different social roles. Adolescents' evaluating how self acted in those roles affected self-esteem (Hart, 1988). Hart (1988) further found that adolescents considered the various characteristics of self in light of their importance for social interaction with others, and their influence on the self's attractiveness to other. Others have importantance to adolescents. How adolescents perceived their roles with others and how adolescents perceived the interaction with others affected self-esteem development. A variety of mechanisms to protect self-esteem were identified, that can be used within these various roles and interactions.

Psychologists found two processes that described how individuals explained success and failure. A discounting process and achievement motivation theory were used to protect self-esteem (Covington, 1984; Harter, 1985b). Individuals engaged these mechanisms to preserve their concept of self.

Harter (1985b) discussed four mechanisms that attempted to protect and enhance adolescents' self-esteem. The first process was to attempt to discount the importance of domains in which one was not competent. A related strategy showed the tendency

for adolescents to take more credit for their successes, than their failures. A similar self-esteem protective mechanism judged one's positive attributes to be the most important and one's negative attributes to be the least important aspects of one's personality. Finally, adolescents viewed positive attibutes as central to self, but negative attributes were viewed merely as behaviors occasionally engaged.

Harter (1988) found that low self-esteem individuals cannot discount the importance of areas in which the adolescent was unsuccessful. Conversely, the individual with high self-esteem seemed able to discount the importance of those domains in which the adolescent felt inadequate (Harter, 1988). These findings suggested that the discounting process was one mechanism through which adolescents of high self-esteem were able to maintain positive feelings about the self in general. Unfortunately, the low self-esteem adolescent appeared not to be able to invoke this protective strategy (Harter, 1988).

Covington (1984) further studied the effect of self-esteem protective mechanism on achievement. Individuals harbored different explanations about the causes of their successes and failures. These differences were the essence of individual differences in achievement motivation. Covington (1984) found

that people motivated to approach success tended to attribute their successes to ability and their failures to a lack of effort. In contrast, failure-avoiding people tended to ascribe success to external factors such as luck and attributed failure to inability. How these strategies were used differed from adolescent to adolescent (Harter, 1985a).

Self-esteem developed in adolescents either positively or negatively. Teachers generally found it helpful to measure development inorder to track progress. Measuring guided intervention to assure staying on track to attain goals. In the next section, measurements of self-esteem were discussed.

Measurements of Self-Esteem

Self-esteem measurements included in this review were developed in the mid sixties. The reviews of these mesaurements were from literature written in the eighties.

Constructing a measure of adolescents' self-esteem, that evaluated each adolescent at their placement on the developmental continuum, was a difficult task. Juhasz (1985) found that measuring self-esteem was complex and problematic. Adolescence was a time of adjustment and change in self-concept (Fischer, 1980). The available measures of self-esteem failed to reveal the factors on which an

adolescents self-esteem rested (Domino & Blumberg, 1987). Yet measurements were developed.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965), The Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) (Coopersmith, 1967), Self-Esteem Scale (SES) (Rosenberg, 1965), and Self-Esteem Questionnaire (SEQ) (Gough, 1965) were the measurements of self-esteem reviewed. These measurements were the most widely used measurements of self-esteem, even though substantial criticisms were leveled at these measures (Byrne, 1983; Domino & Blumberg, 1987; Harter, 1983; Juhasz, 1985).

Criticisms were issued in general about all self-esteem measures. Byrne (1983) questioned the vaility and reliability of interpretations of self-esteem measures. Domino and Blumberg (1987) indicated that the confusion and disagreement about the percise nature of self-esteem needed to be established, before issues of definition and measurement could be resolved. Juhasz (1985) identified aspects of the self, which were important to early adolescents and ranked these aspects by questioning students on the unique aspects of self in school related activities and situations. The top five responses ranked inorder of importance were academics, sports and athletics, friends (same sex), non-academics, and friendliness. Overall Juhasz's

(1985) study found that early adolescents had difficulty providing a comprehensive picture of the self. Juhasz (1985) suggested that early adolescents needed skillful guidance in the process of self-evaluation. Juhasz's (1985) study also found that aspects of life, which were identified as important to early adolescents, were not the same as the aspects of life, that were identified important to middle and late adolescents.

The best empirical self-esteem research was done by Rosenberg (1965, 1986). Rosenberg (1965) developed the SES which measured self-esteem on multidimensional levels. Self-Esteem Scale was designed to be used with adolescents. Although Rosenberg's (1965) measure provided a framework for measurement, the SES does not account for variance in adolescents' hierarchical priority systems of values (Juhasz, 1985). The SES failed to consider individual factors such as developmental, structural, religious, and situational differences.

Domino and Blumberg (1987) stated that individual differences may not be equal in importance within these domains. Even if these difference were equal, different factors within each may be valued differently by each adolescent (Domino & Blumberg, 1987). Juhasz (1985) also indicated that the

valuative domain of the adolesent not of the researcher's should form the basis for measurement.

Coopersmith (1967) developed the SEI, a general assessment of self-esteem, that can be used with all age groups. Criticism was also leveled on Coopersmith's (1967) method of measurement. Self-Esteem Inventory's "like me", "unlike me" format proved to be difficult to understand especially for low ability students. Some questions needed to have their meaning clarified (Byrne, 1983).

Harter (1983) leveled substantial criticisms on both empirical and theoretical grounds at the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was also criticized for its validity and reliability, when compared with other self-esteem measurements (Domino & Blumberg, 1987).

A measurement, that did correlate with other standard measurements of self-esteem, was the Self-Esteem Questionnaire (SEQ). Domino & Blumberg's (1987) Self-Esteem Questionnaire measured self-esteem along a continuum. The SEQ fitted in well with a variety of theoretical approaches and does not have nusisance loadings on sex, intelligence, or social status, or was affected by social desirability (Domino & Blumberg, 1987).

Despite the concerns and issues raised about these self-esteem measurements, these measures were still used in research to investigate the relationship between self-esteem and each of the following; achievement, socialization, special education students, and interventions.

Self-Esteem and Achievement

A plethora of self-esteem studies attempted to correlate self-esteem to academic achievement (Beane, 1982; Covington, 1984; Marsh, Byrne, & Shavelson, 1988b). Research results were found to be inconclusive with respect to the relationship between achievement and self-esteem.

Covington (1984) described the self-worth theory of achievement motivation. The self-worth theory of achievement motivation derived from the basic cognitive position and shared with it the view that achievement and behavior can be most meaningfully conceptualized (Covington, 1984). Specifically, self-worth theory focused attention on the pervasive need to approach success and to avoid failure, which caused a sense of worthlessness and soical disapproval. Covington (1984) recognized in our society that personal worth depended largely on one's accomplishments. Ability was seen as a critical element of success, and inability a prime cause of

failure. Self-perceptions of ability became a significant part of one's self-definition. Covington (1984) concluded that self-worth theory stressed ability perceptions as a primary activator of achievement behavior.

Marsh et al. (1988b) investigated the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement by proposing a multifaceted academic self-esteem hierarchical structure. Self-concept was organized into two areas; academic self-concept and non academic self-concept (Marsh et al., 1988b).

Academic self-concept was further categorized into math/academic self-concept, and verbal/academic self-concept. Non-academic self-concept was further divided into social, physical, and emotional self-concept. The results suggested that general self-concept had not adequately reflected the diversity of academic facets. Only verbal achievement positively influenced verbal self-concept. Math achievement influenced math self-concept. Marsh et al. (1988b) concluded that general self-esteem (global self-esteem) had not reflected the diversity of the specific academic facets. Marsh et al. (1988b) recommended that academic self-concept reseach emphasized multiple specific facets, rather than a single general facet of academic self-concept.

Practical implications of Marsh et al.'s (1988) research for the classroom teachers indicated that teachers made inferences about their students, that were biased. Teachers' inferences of students academic self-esteem reflected primarily teachers' perceptions of students academic achievements. So teachers inferred bright students as bright in all academic facets. These students may only have average or even below-average academic self-esteem in their poorest subjects. Conversely, teachers inferred that poor students have consistently poor self-esteem across all academic facets. These students may have average or even above average self-esteem in their (relatively) best subjects (Marsh et al., 1988b).

In another study about self-esteem and achievement, the different attitudes toward enhancing self-esteem, through achieving, was examined. B. Lerner (1986) encouraged a shift of focus from a "feel-good-now" self-esteem to an earned self-esteem. Adolescent self-esteem in the sixties and seventies was a "feel-good-now" self-esteem. "Feel-good-now" self-esteem was the master key to learning. Two assumptions were made. First, that children with high self-esteem forged ahead in their learning, while low self-esteem children fell behind. Second, low self-esteem was common in childhood.

B. Lerner (1986) indicated that the implications of these two assumptions were that teachers must give priority to raising children's self-esteem, and that teachers had to protect children's self-esteem from injury. Teachers raised self-esteem in children by accepting each child as they were. Teachers also provided successful experiences in the classroom with words of praise and encouragement. Another implication derived from the assumptions was that the teacher must protect self-esteem from injury. Anything that could damage self-esteem was to be eliminated in the classroom (B. Lerner, 1986). B. Lerner (1986) contended that the "feel-good-now" theory of self-esteem did not work. "Feel-good-now" self-esteem focused on attaining happiness. Teachers and parents ensured happiness by lowered standards, so that the adolescent could succeed. The "feel-good-now" self-esteem produced an unhappy adolescent, who constantly hungered to get more for less (B. Lerner, 1986).

Earned self-respect was what mattered (B. Lerner, 1986). In earned self-esteem, parents and teachers insisted on a standard that must be met. B. Lerner (1986) warned that caution needed to be observed to clarify standards, and to assure that no cultural conflict existed between parents' and

teacher's standards. Earned self-esteem was hard and slowly attained, but stable and longlasting (B. Lerner, 1986). B. Lerner (1986) stated that earned self-esteem provided a bases for a secure foundation for further growth and development. Unlike "feel-good-now" self-esteem, earned self-esteem was a product of learning, instead of a precondition to learning (B. Lerner, 1986).

Skaalvik (1983) studied the relationship between academic achievement and self-esteem being stronger for boys than for girls. Skaalvik's (1983) subject were taken from Norwegian schools. Results indicated that low achieving boys tended to feel a stronger parental pressure, than do high achieving boys. Achievement levels made no differences to the girls. A history of low achievement allowed girls to devalue school and schoolwork. Low achieving lowered boys' self-esteem, but girls' self-esteem was not lowered. The difference in attitudes toward achieving and the effect on self-esteem was crystalized around the 4th grade (Skaalvik, 1983). Cultural pressure was stronger for boys to success in school than for girls. This statement assumed that all cultural pressure supported attainment of quality educaiton (Skaalvik, 1983).

Skaalvik (1983) found that cultural pressure differed with social environment and with the sex of the subjects. Awareness of cultural diversity within a population also has to be a considered, when discussing the influence of self-esteem and academic achievement. Skaalvik (1983) illustrated that point when studying the low soci-economic population. Low soci-economic population placed a low pressure toward academic achievement. Failing to discriminate between environments with differing cultural values could mask the effect of the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement (Skaalvik, 1983). Further study on comparing the values, and norms in culturally different segments of society in valuing academic achievement was needed.

Pottebaum, Keith, and Ehly (1986) investigated the causal relationship between self-esteem and achievement. Pottebaum et al. (1986) stated that the causal relation between self-esteem and academic achievement was not clearly defined. Problems with previous studies were cited, so further research was attempted that eliminated these problems (see Pottebaum et al., 1986).

Pottebaum et al. (1986) had 58,728 students, half sophomores and half seniors completed questionnaires and standardized tests of ability and achievement.

The purpose was to determine the presence and direction of a causal relation between self-concept and academic achievement. The results showed no significant causal relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement. Instead the observed relation was the result of one or more uncontrolled and unknown third variable (as in Maruyuma, Rubin, & Kingsbury, 1981). Maruyuma et al. (1981) and Pottebaum et al. (1986) suggested social class and ability may be predominate over the relationship between self-esteem and achievement.

Implications for education showed that educators should not focus on development of general self-esteem as a means to improve academic achievement. Instead, Pottebaum et al. (1986) recommended, that in an educational setting multi-dimensional and global self-esteem best be dealt with as two separate and unrelated constructs (Marsh, Byrne, & Shavelson, 1988a).

Adolescent Self-Esteem and Social Support

Adolescents actively seek social support. Theorists and researchers have linked the development of adolescent self-esteem and interpersonal relationships (Coopersmith, 1967; Kessler, Price, & Wortman, 1985; King, 1980). Findings from studies by Greenberg, Siegel, and Leitch (1983) and Siddique and

D'Arcy (1984) showed that support from father, mother and friends correlated with adolescent self-esteem and well-being. These social provisions studies found an interdependence between the adolescent's relationship with parents and peers to self-esteem.

Hoffman, Ushpiz, and Levy-Shiff (1988) studied that interdependencies were found between parents and peers support of adolescent. Peers' effects on self-esteem were not disjointed from parental effects, but intertwinded. Maternal support was found to be clearly more central to self-esteem, than parental or peer affiliation. Peer support had added importance, when maternal support was low. When disappointed by support, that was initial sought from parents, adolescents turned to alternate suppliers as peers for support (Hoffman et al., 1988).

Further studies explained the particular importance of maternal support. The findings were consistent with attachment theory, that emphasized a positive maternal bond as a bedrock for a resilient and positive sense of self. Furman and Buhrmester (1985), Hunter (1984) and Hunter (1985) found that preadolescents tended to view mothers as the major provider of reliable and consistent social verification. Moms sorted out what others said about

adolescent, so mothers played a major role in the process of self-esteem formation.

Walker and Greene (1986) had 91 adolescents, who were referred to an outpatient clinic. The subjects responded to a questionnaire, that measured adolescents' perception of their relationship to parents. Specifically the questionnaire assessed openness of communication, trust, honesty, positiveness, and the emotional tone of the interaction. The findings were consistent with Greenberg et al. (1983), that attachment to parents, as related to adolescents self-esteem was influential regardless of age. This study also supported recent views that adoelescence was a time of gradual change during which the family continued to be influential (R. M. Lerner & G. B. Spainer, 1980; Protinsky & Farrier, 1980).

Walker and Greene (1986) also found sexual differences in peer relationships. Girls' peer relationships during adolescence were predictive of self-esteem, but not for boys. Walker and Greene (1986) suggested that perhaps girls were more likely, than boys, to have quality, and higher number of peer relationships, that were necessary to augment their self-esteem. Girls were more advanced in interpersonal maturity compared to boys. Therefore,

girls may benefit from close peer relationships earlier than boys do (Walker & Greene, 1986).

Foon (1988) researched to find if a pattern existed between school type, co-ed vs single sex, and the effects these relationships would have on education and self-esteem. Foon (1988) asked 1,675 tenth graders to respond to an eighteen page questionnaire. Results indicated that the confidence of adolescents in their assessments of academic worth might be bound up with their dominant affiliation patterns.

Foon (1988) continued that self confidence in one's ability at school was more likely to be generated by those immediately involved in the context of school as peers, and teachers, rather than by those who were not directly in a position of influence as the family. Foon (1988) also found that students, who attended a single sex school had higher self-esteem.

Hirsch and Rapkin (1987) in a longitudinal study examined changes in global self-esteem, diverse types of psychological symptomatology, satisfaction with school life, and peer social support during the transition to junior high. Subjects were 159 adolescents, who were administered self report questionnaires. Results showed that self-esteem does not change with transition into junior high. In fact,

Hirsch and Rapkin (1987) found that self-esteem increased in the middle of seventh grade.

Hirsch and Rapkin (1987) focused on the organization of the junior high school (JHS) and on the effect between social-cognitive development and self-esteem, Junior high school aggravated the difficult adjustments confronting early adolescents. The departmental structure of the JHS, in which students rotated from teacher to teacher without an intact peer group, has been the target of criticism (Hirsch & Rapkin, 1987)

The diminished opportunity to establish stable relationships with either teachers or peers was thought to be detrimental, since this may also be the time of peak conflict with parents (Miller, 1983). Thus JHS was hypothesized to decrease the opportunity to obtain social supports to help adolescents in coping and in adaptation (Hirsch & Rapkin, 1987). Hirsch and Rapkin (1987) found no evidence of a decline in generic peer support. This assessment was unable to draw any inferences about JHS. The quality of school life had declined regardless of academic competence. Findings were inconclusive and suggested the need to identify the sources f these negative reactions and to consider how schools might be redesigned for this age group.

Harter (1988) noted that the transition to junior high school does cause some early adolescents to reevaluate their competencies, as well as the value, that they attached to success in the domains they choose. But the adolescents' ability to reevaluate competencies and relationships was influenced by their placement on the cognitive development continuum.

Another area, that was often thought to play an important role in an adolesenct's maintenance of self-esteem or development of a sense of identity, was crowd affiliation. Crowd affiliation is thought to be part of being an adolescent. Bradford Brown and Lohr (1987) studied the nature or degree of assoication between teenagers' crowd affiliation and self-esteem.

Bradford Brown and Lohr (1987) identified five major crowds: athletics (sports orientated), popular (well-known students led social activities), normals (middle-of-the-road students who constituted the masses), druggies/toughs (known for illicit drug use and/or delinquent activities), and nobodies (low in social skills and/or intellectual ability). Another subsample included students classified as outsiders. Outsiders were students, who were not known by members of any of the other school's major crowds.

Bradford Brown and Lohr (1987) found that peer-group membership was not necessarily a sign of or

a pathway to strong self-esteem. Peer-group membership was not a preeminent reflection of or influence on adolescents' self-esteem. Self-esteem among group members was significantly related to the status of their crowd (Bradford Brown & Lohr, 1987).

Bradford Brown and Lohr (1987) also found, that outsiders have not appeared to be consistently deficient in self-esteem. Outsiders' self-esteem were tied to one of two perceptions: how accurately they perceived their position in the peer system; or how much outsiders valued group membership (Bradford Brown & Lohr, 1987).

Self-Esteem and Special Education Students

Studies examined the relationship between special education students and self-esteem. The studies included such variables as feelings, communication satisfaction, regular education classes, special education classes, preparing for adulthood, the effects of punk rock, and finally, failure and success.

Omizo, Amerikaner, and Michael (1985) studied feelings and communication toward parents among learning disabled (LD), emotionally disturbed (ED), and normal adolescents (NA) and the effect on self-esteem. Findings showed that LD and ED students' scores reflected decreased self-esteem, increased

feelings toward mothers, and decreased communication satisfaction, than NA. No significant differences were noted among LD, ED, and NA's relations toward communication satisfaction with their fathers and feelings toward their fathers.

Battle and Blowers (1982) proposed to observe the self-esteem and perception of ability of special and regular class students over 3 years to acquire data that supported the assumption that special class placement effected the self-esteem of pupils. Findings indicated that special education students experienced greater gains in self-esteem and perception of ability over a 3 year period when placed in special education classes. Findings also provided supports for proponents of special education classes for children experiencing learning problems. Battle and Blowers' (1982) findings had not necessarily meant that special classes were the best alternative for special education students.

Battle and Blowers (1982) offered two explanations for the findings. First, smaller groups in special education classes allowed for more individual instruction and a greater degree of academic success. A positive self-esteem was associated with academic success. Also smaller classes established a more positive teacher-pupil

interaction. Teachers, who attended to the affective needs of their students significantly generated positive changes in their pupils perception of self-worth. Teachers, who did not pay attention to students' affective needs and emphasized corrections of subject matter, experienced negative shifts in perception of self-worth in their students.

Secondly, self-esteem in special education classes was determined in terms of comparisons of one's self-worth with others in the special education classes. Special education programs tended to foster the development of more positive perceptions of self-worth in students experiencing learning problems. Implications of Battle and Blowers' (1982) research encouraged development of instructional strategies that enabled students with learning problems to experience greater academic success in the mainstreamed classroom.

Pihl and McLarmon (1984) attempted to determine the quality of academic, social, behavioral, and personal/emotional adjustment of adolescents, who have been diagnosed LD as children. Results indicated that adolescent LD students, who were diagnosed as children, were less satisfied, more delinquent, and less flexible compared to normal students. Pihl and McLarmon (1984) showed agreement with studies done in

the seventies, that found LD students to have stronger feelings of insecurity , less self-confidence, lower self-esteem, a predisposing factor to delinquency, to be less sociable, less socially skilled, and less popular.

Pihl and McLarmon (1984) concluded that problems of LD students included social, behavioral, and personal/emotional aspects of life. Therefore coping skills and positive self-statements needed to be taught to LD students. The aim of such teachings was to help LD students deal with stress; and boost confidence, and self-esteem. This led to increased achievement (Pihl & McLarmon, 1984). The type of broadening of the special edcuation programs, beyond the academic to include coping skills and positive self-statements, provided reinforcement for behaviors involved in personal development.

Smith (1988) discussed the need for preparing LD adolescents for adulthood. Common trait of LD students was that they were easily overwhelmed. LD students, who were disorganized, became easily over loaded, which led to more disorganization and stress. LD students needed to learn to plan, to organize situations or assignments one step at a time, so they do not experience failure and become depressed.

Smith (1988) stated that adults, who worked with LD students must actively sought ways to build self-esteem in adolescents. A suggested intervention was to have high school LD students work with elementary low ability LD students. By the high schoolers encouraging and telling the child, that the child was smart, the high schooler reinforced that knowledge in themselves.

Smith (1988) stated that, inorder to enter the world of work or higher education, LD students needed to achieve a comfort level with their own abilities and disabilities. Learning disabled students used this information to speak-up and advocate for themselves. Learning disabled students should be encouraged to make lists of their strengths, their interests, and their disabilities. Teachers needed to talk about how they learn best; what they are good at; and what activities cause them difficulty. Teachers also needed to provide LD students assistance in discovering approaches, methods, and techniques that work for each student (Smith, 1988)

Reid (1982) studied how people saw themselves (self-concept) and valued themselves (self-esteem) as crucial in determining goals, setting attitudes, initiating behavior, and making responses. Major

determinants of self-concept were child-parent relationship and school experience (Reid, 1982).

An accurate picture of children's self-concept was an important part of professional knowledge as was an assessment of their intellectual potential and academic progress (Reid, 1982). The way that a teacher interpreted this knowledge into practice in the classroom could have bearing upon absenteeism.

The study of absenteeism in secondary school was a study of the dynamics of dissociation or the process through which pupils became alienated from school. Reid (1982) hypothesized that students dis-affiliate themselves either, when they felt rejected by the schools or got cut-off from the schools, when they could not meet standards.

Reid (1982) studied subjects, who were divided into three groups: first, persistent absentees; second, a control group one composed of students with the same grades and matched in sex, and age as persistent absentees; and third, control group two composed of students with high academic achievement, but matched in sex and age to the persistent absentees.

Results showed that absentees rated themselves far lower than the two control groups on 4 variables. First, the absentees had lower academic ability

compared with others in their class. Second, absentees felt less chance of entering a profession. Third, absentees rated their own work lower, than the two control groups. Finally, the absentee rated themselves with lower self-esteem.

Reid's, (1982) results emphasized the need for parents and teachers to improve the quality of their relationship with the adolescent. Persistent absenteeism came from more deprived, less stable, and lower socioeconomic backgrounds. The persistent absentee received little support at home and in schools. Preventive and remedial action was not enough. Presently schools reinforced the original deviant conduct. Instead the goal has to be to raise the persistent absentees' self-concept, but first a change in the persistent absentees' attitudes toward their school and their education was needed (Reid, 1982). To combat and eradicate persistent absenteeism, schools must start to identify, to understand, and to eliminate thoses processes which built negative identities for pupils and reinforced avoidance behaviors.

Reid (1982) appointed this responsibility with the principals and assoicate principals of the schools. Fundamental and essential to resolving this conflict were better teacher-pupil contacts. Reid

(1982) concluded that persistent absentees attended, when they saw attending as relevant. If school continued to be seen as irrelevant, as reinforcing outdated concepts, or as intensifying their failures, then absentees would not attend. Schools needed plans to take a more imaginative approach in handling, preventing, and treating persistent absenteeism.

Gold (1987) compared punk rock with nonpunk rock delinquents on the trait of self-image. Results failed to show a significant difference between punk rock and nonpunk rock juvenile delinquents. A closer look at the responses found a significant difference between the groups on family closeness and parental relationships. Gold (1987) found that inadequate support led to lowered self-esteem. Twice as many punk rockers felt misunderstood by their parents (Gold, 1987).

H. B. Kaplan (1980) proposed that low self-esteem played a significant role in the development of asocial behavior. An individual's value orientation was also important to the adoption of deviant behavior (H. B. Kaplan, 1980). The exact relationship between self-esteem and value orientation to delinquency, was unclarified (H. B. Kaplan, 1980).

Zieman and Benson (1983) studied the exact relationship that existed between self-esteem and

social values to deviant behavior. Zieman and Benson (1983) individually administered a battery of scales that measured value, orientation, and self-esteem. The assessed self-esteem areas inlcuded general self-esteem, ideal image, others view, and view within family.

Zieman and Benson (1983) supported the theories of H. B. Kaplan (1980), that low self-esteem was important in the development of delinquency. H. B. Kaplan (1980) further proposed that delinquency provided a means of enhancing self-worth. Zieman and Bowan's 1983 study presented data that supported Kaplan's proposal that self-esteem among delinquents was enhanced by deviant behavior. Delinquent behavior was adopted, because it inflated self-esteem through behavioral and psychological defenses. Delinquent behavior allowed delinquents to reject general social feedback and to raise their self-perception (H. B. Kaplan, 1980). Zieman and Benson (1983) showed that disguising of deficiencies does appear to be a primary defense. Findings also showed that behavior-problem youths perceived themselves as good, capable, happy individuals, who were well mannered and concerned about others (Zieman & Benson, 1983). This perception suggested that expectations were not lowered, but

Zieman and Benson (1983) upheld the importance of value orientation and self-esteem to delinquency. Denial and rejection of general social feedback and incongruencies between behavior and self-perception appeared to be primary defense that were used to maintain and enhance self-esteem (Zieman & Benson, 1983).

Social support networks were identified as important factors in helping people cope (Forman, 1988). Forman (1988) stated that the special education students, who were vulnerable, and who experienced a lack of social support from significant others were likely to demonstrate a considerable degree of emotional distress. In contrast, special education students, who were less vulnerable and/or have a supportive social network, were more likely to cope effectively with their disability.

Rubin (1971) was one of the first to suggest an association between the availability of social supports and high self-esteem. Harter (1985b) also examined soical support, adolescents' self-esteem, and their effects on learning disabled. Subjects were normally achieving (NA) and learning disabled (LD) studemts, that provided preliminary confirmation of the hypothesized relationship between social support

and self-esteem. Results indicated that high social support correlated with high self-esteem.

Forman (1988) examined the effects of two types of social factors: school placement and perceived social support on self-concept of learning disabled (LD) students. Forman (1988) assessed the following aspects of self-concept; general self-worth, scholastic competence, athletic competence, physical appearance, and behavioral conduct. The LD students received three types of special education services: first, in self-contained LD classrooms; second, in receiving remediation during part of the day in resource rooms; and third, in being diagnosed LD, but not yet receiving services.

Forman (1988) hypothesized that LD students not receiving services had lower self-esteem than LD students receiving LD services either in self-contained classes or in resource rooms. Forman (1988) also predicted that LD students, who felt supported by parents, teachers, and peers, would demonstrate higher self-esteem than students with fewer supports. Forman (1988) aimed to explore the relative importance of various sources of social support for the LD student's self-concept. A self-perception and a social support scale were

administered individually or in small groups to 51 subjects (Forman, 1988).

Results indicated that high social support from a variety of sources was associated with higher self-esteem in several of the areas assessed (Forman, 1988). Specific sources of social support exerted differing effects on self-concept. The peer group effected self-worth in scholastic competence, specific behaviors, athletic competence, and physical appearance. Parental support effected behavioral conduct. Teachers and friends were the least important contributors to self-concept. School special services placement had not effected self-concept (Forman, 1988).

Forman (1988) concluded that school placement was not related to self-esteem. Social support, especially from classmates, was found to have an effect on self-esteem. Social support influenced self-esteem. Forman (1988) inferred that self-esteem maybe seen as an important contributor to delinquent, emotionally disturbed, and LD students' ability to cope effectively with academic and nonacademic tasks.

Another study that looked at the effects of failure was Zarb (1984). Zarb (1984) proposed comparing remedial students (remedials), regular education students, who were failing three or more

subjects (failures), and successful regular education students, who were failing no more than one class (control group). The results indicated that failures were characterized by additional personality and behavioral difficulties, that distinguished them from remedials. Poor self-concept was related to poor family situation. The failure group had a history of behavior problems during the elementary years. The behaviors most often mentioned and/or recorded were absences and withdrawness/depression. In high school, truancy beame a problem.

Zarb (1984) made two generalizations. First, emotional problems were significantly related to academic performance to a greater degree for students of multiple failures, than for remedials and normal students. Second, intellectual achievement was significantly related to academic performance for remedials and normal students to a greater degree than for students with multiple failures. These generalizatons indicated a need for different intervention strategies for remedials and normal students than for multiple failure students. Interventions recommended for remedials, who were failing, were booster programs as tutoring. For multiple failure students, psychological counseling was recommended (Zarb, 1984). Zarb (1984) indicated

a need for interventions that were supportive and were appropriate to meet the needs of the special education students and failing students inorder to enhance self-esteem.

Current Interventions To Promote Self-Esteem

Being able to raise or enhance, levels of self-esteem in students was valued. This section was concerned with the interventions to increased self-esteem and the implications for classroom practice. Four categories of interventions were identified; (1) general and specific curriculum areas, (2) teacher behaviors, (3) parents and teachers relationship, and (4) whole school program.

General and Specific Curriculum

There were several key points noted in regards to implementing self-esteem curriculum plans. First, Beane (1982) warned, that content and view of objectives must transcend the present preoccupation with strict behavioral and performance-based formats. A critical need existed to recognize the diverse and individualized nature of self-esteem, when considering curriculum action. Limiting the nature of acceptable learning through specific behavior or performance requirements was exactly opposite to the diversity of self-esteem, that learners possessed (Beane, 1982). Beane (1982) suggested that in subject predominated

situations, objectives in whatever content should be related to the real lives of learners. Second, the kinds of activiites used in teaching-learning situations must take on forms different from those generally practiced. Instead of setting a side time blocks from the rest of the school program, the matter of self-esteem should permeate the whole curriculum through new ways of thinking about curricular approaches (Beane, 1982).

Beane (1982) stated that much progress may be made simply by developing activites and projects, that in their normal course encouraged learners to think about themselves and to develop feelings of belonging and self-worth. Development of activities and projects included teacher-pupil planning, cooperative learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1986), peer tutoring, mastery learning (Covington, 1984), metacognitive or self-instruction strategies (Rhodes, 1988), out-of-school activities (Beane, 1982), computer-assisted instruction, and bibliotherapy (Calhoun, 1987).

After reviewing literature on how bibliotherapy facilitated self-identification and enhanced self-perception, Calhoun (1987) found that researchers now agreed that selected and monitored literature can promote better self-perception in school-aged

children. Calhoun (1987) defined bibliotherapy as the process by which either a positive or negative change in attitude, behavior, or self was manifested through the reading of selected and monitored literature. Teachers selected literature that had the greatest impact on each pupil. The literature allowed the reader to learn from the main character, because the main character was realistic, honest, and entailed goals that were reachable.

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) has a positive influence on self-esteem (Braun & Slobodzian, 1982; Clement, 1981; Dalton & Hannafin, 1984; Furst, 1983; Robertson, Ladewig, Strickland, & Boschung, 1987). Dalton and Hannafin (1984) and Clement (1981) noted that the nonjudgmental/neutral and consistent reinforcement offered by the computer was an optimal reward situation. Braun and Slobodzian (1982) indicated that the appeal of CAI rested in its patience, and its predictability. In addition, the freedom from embarrassment, disapproval, and diminished status, which often accompanied a mistake in the classroom, was increased by the privacy of the CAI learning situation (Brown, 1986; Clement, 1981; Dalton & Hannafin, 1984; Waldrop, 1984). Braun and Slobodzian (1982) stated that the personal computer was on the brink of revolutionizing special education.

The research data on interventions that enhanced self-esteem included courses. Wanat (1983) investigated the usefulness of a 16-week social skills course in changing the self-esteem of learning disabled adolescents. Wanat (1983) found an improvement in self-esteem in the adolescents, who participated in the social skills classes, over those adolescents, who did not participate in social skills classes.

Social skills courses reviewed were Skillstreaming, and Quest Program. Ayers (1981) and Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw, and Klein (1980) built self-esteem through developing skills in relating to others positively.

Ayers (1981) described a curriculum program, Quest, that attempted to build self-esteem. The Quest course contained subjects as friendships, attitudes, liking and accepting oneself, dealing with emotions and feelings, family relationships, financial management, decisions about love and marriage, parenting, goal setting and career planning, and finally, philosophy and the meaning of life.

The Quest course, Skills for Living, has five basic kinds of learning experiences; 1) readings; 2) group activities; 3) community resources; 4) field activities; and 5) personal reflections. Community

resources included parents, business people, and professionals. Field activities were designed to get secondary students involved in the community. Field activities included field trips, action-oriented service projects, and student leadership development. Another component of the Quest program was personal reflection which included sharing experiences in small groups, or recording experiences in journals. These experiences were intended to help secondary school students develop the skills helpful to effective living and to encourage them to apply these principles in their service and relationship to others (Ayers, 1981).

Goldstein et al. (1980) noted that deficiencies in social and planning skills and in abilities to deal with stress, feelings, and aggression represented major sources of conflict. The solution to many of these problems may lie in concentrated efforts to build up the strengths and potentials of troublesome and troubled young people, rather than in disciplinary or remedial action. Goldstein et al. (1980) explained that Skillstreaming was a structured learning experience. Skillstreaming was an intervention designed specifically to enhance the prosocial, interpersonal, stress management, and planning skills of the aggressive, withdrawn, immature, and "normal",

but developmentally lagging adolescent (Goldstein et al., 1980). The components of this structrued learning experience consisted of modeling, role playing, performance, feedback, and transfer of training. Skillstreaming emphasized skill building to pave the way for a better educational experience.

Teaching Strategies and Attitude

Brennan (1985) studied the effect of school participation on self-esteem by hypothesising that increased student participation led to increased perception of self-esteem by the students. Findings indicated that all involvement with others, or even with self, as in the more abstract sense of personal quiet time, was important to the development of self-esteem (Brennan, 1985). As people interacted, cooperated, competed, and learned from each other, they became familiarized with others and, in turn, with themselves (Brennan, 1985).

Lamke, Lujan, and Showalter (1988) developed, implemented, and evaluated a cognitive behavior modification program designed to change adolescents' self-statements and to increase their levels of self-esteem. Subjects were 27 ninth graders, who were separated into two groups: an experimental group and a no-contact control group. The experimental group was enrolled in counseling classes and the no contact

group was not enrolled in counseling classes. Results indicated that students in the experimental group were able to make significantly more positive self-statements. Results were accomplished in regular class settings. Lamke et al. (1988) saw this as a means of reaching adolescents, before they needed to be singled out for individual attention. However, the study failed to produce any significant findings for self-esteem.

Schilling (1986) proposed four factors necessary for special education adolescents to feel good about themselves. Special education adolescents needed to feel capable, to feel significant, to see themselves as powerful, and finally to feel worthy. Teachers nurtured special education adolescents' self-esteem in many ways.

Schilling (1986) listed strategies to nurture the self-esteem of students. Suggestions were: (1) to celebrate the successes of students (ex. Sending notes home about specific achievements were especially effective.); (2) to preserve student's work (It conveyed the message to students, that their work is worth saving.); (3) to evaluate their work and to decide what they would like displayed on bulletin boards; (4) to spotlight each student, starting with yourself so students would not feel self-conscious;

(5) to use non-competitive skill-building activities (as cooperative learning); (6) to teach students a unique skill, that they taught others; (7) to schedule frequent group discussion times; (8) to display papers, pictures, hobbies, and other things (This showed that students' lives outside of school were important too.); (9) to make a classroom suggestion box; (10) to use contracts (P. Kaplan & A. Hoffman, 1981); (11) to model self-praise; and (12) to recognize birthdays. These ideas can be valuable especially on days when the only attention a student attained was negative. Schilling (1986) pointed out that it was hard to feel capable, significant, powerful, or worthy while receiving negative attention.

Madden (1988) suggested that rather than using the language of praise, teachers might consider using the language of encouragement. The language of praise was judgmental. Madden (1988) believed that the language of encouragement recognitized the growth and contributions that students made. Encouragement also promoted self-reliance, self-direction, and cooperation. By nurturing and encouraging students, students became, whom they could be (Madden, 1988).

Norem-Hebeisen and Johnson (1981) and Johnson and Johnson (1986) studied the attitudes toward styles of

social interdependence and ways of deriving self-esteem. The styles of social interdependence were competitive, cooperation, and individual. Both studies indicated, that cooperative learning activities positively influenced student's self-esteem. Norem-Hebeisen and Johnson (1981) found, that positive attitudes toward cooperation, were positively correlated with ease in being oneself as reflected in basic self-acceptance and freedom from conditional acceptance (competiton). Johnson and Johnson (1986) stated that cooperative learning should be used, whenever teachers wanted students to learn more, like school better, like each other better, have higher self-esteem, and learn more effective social skills.

Ames and Ames (1981) provided important insights about the motivational outcomes associated with competitive learning structures. Results indicated that students perceived ability as a more salient cause of their successes and failures under competitive conditions, and also that failing students were more self-punishing and perceived themselfves as less capable in competition. Competition also contributed to unrealistic goal setting inwhich students often overestimated what they could do in an effort to outdo their classmates (Ames & Ames, 1981;

Covington, 1984). Finally, Covington (1984) found that competition tended to magnify the positive affect associated with success and the negative affect associated with failure. Covington (1984) concluded that students valued ability because of its perceived importance to success and because eventually students equated ability with worth. Ability valuation was important in the classroom as a major predictor of who learned the fastest, and who selected to learn more (Covington, 1984).

Norem-Hebeisen and Johnson (1981) warned that while attitudes toward types of social interdependence and ways of deriving conclusions about one's self-worth were related, they were by no means primarily determined by one another. Instead, other factors influenced both sets of attitudes (Norem-Hebeisen & Johnson, 1981).

Graziano, Feldesman, and Rahe (1985) found that extraverts' and introverts' reactions to cooperative and competitive activities differed. Most notably, the results indicated that extraverts regarded a competitive situation more favorably than do introverts. Graziano et al. (1985) pointed out that the cooperative activity was rated as significantly more interesting, friendly, likable, and significantly less potentially punishing than the competitive

activity. These results implied that subjects perceived the competitive activity as having more aversive characteristics than the cooperative activity (Graziano et al., 1985).

Olds (1987) indicated that enhancement of self-esteem was through mutual self-disclosure. Self-disclosure required students to present an autobiographical sketch regarding some health issue like smoking, illicit drug use, or sexuality (Olds, 1987). After the autobiographical sketches were presented, students completed another round sharing throughts, that they remembered as others were speaking.

Olds (1987) stated that self-disclosure technique helped to enhance self-esteem of students by getting them to feel better about themselves as human beings. Individuals, who possessed a strong sense of self-esteem, often had not engaged in negative health behaviors. While individuals with weak self-esteem, often practiced destructive health behaviors (Olds, 1987). Olds (1987) indicated that self-disclosure helped to create an environment where students can learn and grow.

Tomlan (1985) stressed that an awareness and understanding of one's self as learning or behavioral disabled was a key component to increasing

self-concept among special education students. A few suggestions were to explain handicaps to special education students. Tomlan (1985) stated that honesty was the best policy and suggested borrowing a model of the brain from a biology class to explain the disability. Tomlan (1985) suggested beginning the discussion by stating what the disability was not. The disability was not retardation or innate evilness. The teacher should pointed out students' strengths and used work samples and behavioral records to demonstrate their difficulties. Teacher should be extremely watchful, using eye contact and sincerity in their explanation. Tomlan (1985) further cautioned that some youngsters were not ready to discuss themselves, when the teacher was. At that time, back off! There will be another time and place (Tomlan, 1985).

Parental Support

Parents and teachers worked together to contribute raising special education students' self-esteem. Searey (1988) organized suggestions to accomplish raising self-esteem into four categories: 1) helping special education students feel more capable; 2) helping special edcuation students feel more significant; 3) helping special education students feel more powerful; and 4) helping special

edcuation students feel more worthy. A wide range of suggestions existed from statements of love for child to promoting hobbies.

Under the first category of helping special education adolescents feel more capable, Searey (1988) suggested that the special education students be allowed to take on special projects for parent or teachers. Also when making corrections, parent and teachers should work on only one or two improvements. Parents and teachers needed to display works of arts, school papers, scouting honors, and certificates of achievements. The adolescents can also be assigned a daily chore or asked to teach a skill to someone younger (Searey, 1988).

To help special education adolescents feel more significant, Searey (1988) emphasized that parents listened to their adolescents, and encouraged them to talk to show the importance of the adolescents' ideas and concerns. Involoving special education adolescents in clubs and organizations fostered a sense of belonging. Encouraging special education adolescents to volunteer to help the elderly, a neighbor, or at a day care center demonstrated that special education adolescents had something to offer to others. Expressing parental love emphasized parental caring. Finally, celebrating experiences of

success showed the special edcuation adolescents' life events mattered (Searey, 1988).

Parents helped special education adolescents feel more powerful by developing and encouraging their sense of humor, that can influence people's mood. Teaching special education adolescents to make decisions illustrated that they had choices. Examples of possible decision-making situations suggested were participation in family planning, scheduling of special education adolescents' own time, and selection of clothing (Searey, 1988).

To help special education adolescents feel more worthy, Searey (1988) indicated that parents needed to recognize and point out special education adolescents' strengths as their sensitivity, their ability to have fun, their regard for others feelings, their desire to understand something, and their creativity. Promoting hobbies, demonstrating respect for all people, identifying and meeting positive role models with their disability, and discussing problems, while emphasizing the positive, allowed special education adolescents to know that difficulties in school were not meant as indications of doing poorly in life (Searey, 1988).

Berne (1987) offered techniques to use with students to resolve self-image crises. Berne (1987)

defined self-image crises as; students, who were overly fearful in new situations; students, who have difficulty making friends; students, who did not stand up for their rights; and students, who have difficulty fitting in. Berne (1987) further stated that students with self-image crises have low self-esteem. These children needed to be in situations that were comfortable, interesting, and as much fun as possible. Plan structured learning situations, with a scheduled time, and with a successful outcome assured, were needed to enhance self-esteem. . Modeling and reinforcement of appropriate behavior helped (Berne, 1987).

No matter how deep their downward spiral of deteriorating self-esteem, each child has an innate drive to see the self as meaningful, valuable, capable, and lovable (Berne, 1987) The initiative to build self-esteem has to be taken by the teacher and/or parents. On-going recognition, of how well the students were doing, helped. Students realized, that they can tackle new tasks and situations (Berne, 1987).

Whole School Approach

The Apollo Project was not just another curriculum course. The staff at this high school in southern California structured the school around the

needs of the students. A major goal was to increase the self-esteem of students. If students were to build their self-esteem, they needed to experience the five 'As': Attention, Acceptance, Appreciation, Affection, and Apollo-like school (Greene & Vroff, 1989).

Apollo was a school for 400 at-risk students. Apollo students helped to establish the rules and shared in the responsibility to see, that they were followed. For example, the principal enlisted the aid of some classmates to help solve a student's tardiness problem. The students decided that the tardy student needed a dramatic reminder of the importance of being on time. So the students decided, that the student's first hour class was to have the class and the teacher show up at the tardy student's house. The teacher and the classmates offered to hold class in the student's bedroom (Greene & Vroff, 1989). A unique and probably effective method, but unpractical for most public schools.

CHAPTER III

Summary

The excessive amount of literature on adolescents' self-esteem documented the high concern and interest in the topic by administraters, teachers, and parents. This eighties literature review on adolescents' self-esteem examined self-esteem's cognitive development and critiqued measurements of self-esteem. The relationship between adolescents' self-esteem with achievement and social support was also discussed. Then the existence of self-esteem was analyzed as it existed in special education students. Finally, techniques, attitudes, and courses, that promoted self-esteem in adolescents were shared.

The literaure was not able to agree on a univerasl accepted definition, but agreement did exist on some aspects. Self-esteem was the degree of satisfaction with inherent competence. Self-esteem was an evaluative aspect of the mind. The evalutation was experienced in the form of feelings.

Self-esteem has two components; self-competence and self-worth. Self-competence is assurance in one's mind to reliably process preceptions. Self-worth results from a judgment that was based on a standard. Working within the mind, self-competence and self worth produced self-esteem.

The literature identified two types of self-esteem to be global self-esteem and multidimensional self-esteem. Multidimensional self-esteem was a range of abilities that was found on a continuum of abilities. The abilities possessed in various roles as student, son or daughter, worker, athlete etc. and the competence that was felt in those roles was mulitdimensional self-esteem. Global self-esteem was the thinking about self as a generally good or bad person.

Cognitive delvelopment determined the capability of self-esteem to function. During adolescence, cognition was still developing. The evolving condition of cognition effected the quality of the valuing process. During adolescence, cognition is constantly evolving from early, to middle, and then late adolescence.

Another outcome of cognitive delvelopment on self-esteem was how the mechanisms to protect self-esteem were engaged. Protective mechanisms ranged from discounting unattained abilities and acclaiming attained abilities to taking more credit for success and taking less credit for failures. The adolescents' cognitive development determined the adolescent's ability to utilize protective mechanisms.

Measurements that were used to define the quality of self-esteem have reliability and validity problems. Clarifying self-esteem is necessary to ease developing and improving measuring tools. The complexity of self-esteem combined with the complexity of human beings made the development of measuring tools a difficulty task.

Various aspects of the relationship between achievement and self-esteem were studied. One study found that earned self-esteem was enduring and resolved. Another research found that achievement had more influence on multidimensional self-esteem. Global self-esteem was not reflective of specific achievements. Conversely, multidimensional self-esteem was not reflective of overall achievement. Cultural values, ability, and sex influenced attitudes toward achieving. Therefore, the direct influence of achieving on self-esteem was questioned.

Special education students' self-esteem was low. Special education students were found to feel less satisfied, less flexible, less sociable, less self-confident, and more deviant. Special education students disassociated themselves from schools, where they felt rejected or operating below standards. One reseacher found low self-esteem to be a variable in

asocial behavior. The research further stated that deviant behavior was adopted to increase self-esteem.

Schools needed to actively build self-esteem in special education students, because self-esteem effected goal setting, attitudes, behavior, and responses. Courses and programs within the school needed to be incorperated into the curriculum, that enabled teaching of planning skills, coping skills, and social skills. Instructional strategies also needed to be developed, that enabled special education students to experience greater learning success. Teacher-student contact needed to be improved. Curriculum, teaching strategies, and parent involvement should be refocused to promote a supportive, effective environment, that built self-esteem.

Building self-esteem must penetrate and spread throughout the school, instead of setting apart a separate time. Curriculum needed to involve special education students in learning activities. Teaching strategies, that provided positive learning experiences, should be used. Teaching strategies recommended were cooperative learning, peer tutoring, mastery learning, and metacognition. Special education students should be taught about their disability to promote understanding. Parents showed

support by displaying work, and giving on-going recognition. The initiative to provide comfortable, interesting, and fun situations were the responsibility of the parent and teachers.

Specific teaching activities, that were recommended, include bibliotherapy, computer-assisted instruction, social skills course, and a self-disclosure technique. Bibliotherapy provided reading materials that provided a non-judgmental feedback on learning, and that provided a non-embarrassed, positive learning experience. A social skills course was encouraged, as Skill Streaming or the Skills for Living course of the Quest program. Self-disclosure techniques built effective relationships through discussions about controversial health issues as sexuality and smoking. Integrating these activities within the mainstream curriculum was indicated to enhance self-esteem, rather than scheduling as separate classes. Beyond the need to adjust curriculum and services within schools, school personnel needed to focus on more support, and to teach and engage parents in supporting their special education students, because multiple support increased self-esteem.

Conclusions

At present comprehensive statements about self-esteem must remain somewhat speculative, but an examination of theory and research offered some important information about how people perceived themselves. Self-perception functioned on three levels: specific situations, categorical, and general. First, in their daily lives students were involved in many specific situations in which they exercised and developed ideas about their knowledge, skills, beliefs, attitudes, and the like. As a result of experience and desire, students have perceptions about themselves based on various roles they played and attributes which they believed they possessed. Third, students seemed to have a general sense of self, perhaps based on decisions about their situation experiences and categroical perceptions.

Self-concept, self-esteem, and values appeared to be three dimensions of self-perception. Self-concept referred to the description students held of themselves based on the roles they played and personal attributes they believed they possessed. Self-esteem referred to the level of satisfaction students attached to that description or parts of it. Self-esteem decisions, in turn, were made on the basis

of what was important to them or, more specifically, their values.

The valuing process began, when the mind encountered reality and perceived it. The mind perceiving reality produced a notion. This perceived notion of reality, then passed through a screen of values and standards. The screening evaluated the notion. The evaluation effected self-esteem. The perceived notion, that has been evaluated by self-esteem, formed the individuals's self-concept. The evaluation passed on self was experienced in the form of a feeling. A feeling, that was experienced constantly, was part of every feeling, and involved in every emotional response.

Self-perception appeared to be age-related or more specifically maturity-related. The adolescent utilized the valuing process to the degree of cognitive development that occrred. Cognitive development also effected the quality of engaging self-esteem's protective mechanisms. The integrating of ability, perception, others definition of self, and cognitive development influenced the valuing process. Self's ability to perceive, evaluate, judge and feel effected cognitive development's capability to use these functions.

Awareness of special education students placement on the cognitive development continuum was necessary. During adolescence, cognitive development was evolving, so an on-going change in perception and evaluation was occurring. The intrinsic change effected extrinsic perception. An on-going change in perceiving and evaluating of life's encounter was simultaneously occurring. Intrinsic change can be a confusing, stressful, and frustating experience. To deal positively with this changing self, special education students needed to feel that they were not alone. Parents, schools, and teachers awareness of special education students' cognitive development was also helpful in identifying how-to-be their advocates. Positiveness and supportiveness were necessary while adolescents cognitive development evolved inorder to prevent lowering of self-esteem. Positiveness and supportiveness were also necessary to plan learning projects, activities, and assignments.

As the students mature, they seemed to seek stability and consistency. Inorder to make a difference in the self-perceptions of students, schools needed to construct a consistent and continuing series of specific situations in which certain feedback was received and in which schools helped students to clarify their concepts of self and

the values upon which their personal self-esteem was made.

Knowledge of the self-esteem process and the influence of cognitive development should be used in developing a program to promote, enhance, or build self-esteem in schools. Schools needed to restructure to become more supportive, positive learning environments. School restructuring in learning strategies, goals, and attitudes was basic to schools' reformation.

Changes in attitude in the learning place also needed to be humanistic. A learning place that no longer demanded attendance, instead attendance occurred, because students were engaged in learning. A place that no longer pointed out personnal weaknesses, instead built up personnal strengths. A place that no longer discouraged asocial behavior, instead employed ways to encourage appropriate behavior. Specifically schools needed to shift from custodial climate to humanistic climate. Custodial climate was characterized by concern for maintenance of order, preference for autocraic procedures, student stereotyping, punitive sanctions, and impersonalness. The humanistic climate was characterized by democratic procedures, student participation in decision making, personalness, respect, fairness, self-discipline,

interactions, and flexibility. The custodial climate appeared to be a debilitating factor in the concept of self, while the humanistic climate appeared to be considred facilitating.

One key issue in developing a positive sense of self was the degree to which the students perceived control over their lives. The custodial climate undoubtedly contributed to a sense of external rather than internal locus of control. Schools' impositions debilitated self-esteem and must be revised to enhance a sense of self-control.

The school has to become a learning enviornment that invited students to come, stay, learn and grow. Affective teaching, that encouraged support, was required to promote and to establish a positive, motivating learning environment. A cooperative environment in which answers to the question, "How can I help you to learn?" were sought; rather than answers to the question, "Did you do your homework?" or "Are you taking notes?"

Learning would then move away from textbooks and tests toward problems and projects. The passive learner, whose school activities consisted of studying someone's concerns, by their method, was hardly developing a personal sense of self as learner. Studying personally important problems and creating or

constructing related projects offered a tremendous opportunity to develop a sense of self as an ongoing and capable learner.

Special education students' learning has to be accommodated in the learning environment. Planned activities should not be beyond the grasp of the learner. Fear or actual failure was to be avoided. Teaching strategies can be adapted to promote learning strengths, to augment learning style, and to monitor progress. Various teaching strategies that accommodated learning were curriculum-based assessment, mastery learning, cooperative learning, learning styles assessement, and metacognition. Use of these activities promoted opportunities for successful learning. One successful learning experience breeds a desire to experience another successful learning experience.

The teachers' role shifted in this learning environment to accommodate learning. The teachers were no longer gatekeepers of knowledge. The teachers instead became the resourcers of knowledge. The difference between the two roles was that the gatekeeper held the key to knowledge and the students were responsible to adapt to the teachers' strategies to unlock the knowledge. The resourcers of knowledge

encouraged, motivated, trained, and reinforced students to learn the knowledge.

The attainment of knowledge was not only encouraged by the teacher, but also by fellow learners. In the learning environment, emphasis stressed helping everyone desiring to learn the knowledge held by the resourcer to learn, instead of competing to achieve the highest grade or to complete the assignment first. Supportive help was also provided by both the teacher and classmates plus other school personnel. The goal in the classroom was the same as the school's goal of providing a positive learning experience. Cooperative, supportive training on how-to-learn was modeled, identified, practiced, and evaluated to facilitate learning. Self-esteem would probably be faciliated by use of a variety of grouping patterns depending upon the task to be accomplished.

Support and cooperation among schools, teachers, and classmates was not enough to meet the goal of positive learning. Parental support and involvement with special educaiton students was targeted as a key link to their success in learning. Parents and teachers needed to combine their supportive efforts. Parental support was not only fostered, but training and educating in how-to-supply the support was also

provided. The combined efforts of parent and teachers led to the most positive, supportive learning environment, that enhanced self-esteem.

Activities, assignments, and projects were implemented to establish a non-judgmental and non-competitive learning environment. One of the key benefits of this type of learning environment may be control of the type of interaction and the corresponding lack of teacher criticism. Although the emergence of social-comparison dynamic appeared to be part of the normal developmental process, it negatively effected students' self-esteem. The negative effect was undoubtly accelerated and intensified by the competitive school environment. This occrred because competitive evaluation systems reduced the number of psychological rewards available to students in a classroom. Non-judgmental, neutral and consistent reinforcement offered in the learning environment was a most favorable reinforcement situation.

Noncompetitive learning structures increased the number of rewards available to special education students. The most important task facing the teacher was to instruct special education students in ways that kept a growing preoccupation with ability from interfering with students willingness to learn.

Noncompetitive learning structures promoted the pursuit of success rather than forcing an avoidance of failure. Research tested a number of noncompetitive techniques as mastery learning, cooperative learning, and contract learning. Students learned through noncompetitive learning, that the rewards of contributing to the well-being of others surpassed the dubious benefits of triumphing over them.

Supplemental curriculum had been implemented inwhich courses taught social skills, self-statements, and self-disclosure. The purpose was to help special education students to develop the self and personal skills necessary to be active constructors of their own reality. The desired effect was to help special edcuation students realize the possibility of their own choices. Separate courses that targeted a select population established an artifical environment.

Schools instead needed to concentrate the whole school in teaching social, coping, and self-statements skills to build all aspects of self-esteem. School goals ought to include enhancement of self-perceptions in terms of human development beyond mere academic concerns. More specific for developing such a curriculum, schools were to develop activities that promoted internal locus of control, self-direction, independence, and responsibility. These skills should

not be taught in separate courses established for special education students. The teaching of these skills should be integrated throughout the curriculum.

All areas of the curriculum needed to expand to clarify self-concept, to improve self-esteem, and to clarify the values upon which self-esteem was based. The development of clear, positive and adequate self-esteem compelled schools to find ways to involve learners in the function of governing school life, in giving learners a say in curriculum plans, in providing opportunities for learners to pursue their personal agendas, and generally developing a positive learning environment.

The research showed that special education students' self-esteem was most vulnerable in a custodial climate. Special education students' self-esteem would thrive in a humanistic school climate. Global self-esteem and multidimensional self-esteem may be fostered in the schools by developing a supportive and accepting attitude. A cooperative supportive atmosphere that was established by a combined effort of parents, school administraters, and teachers would enhance self-esteem. Although special education students whined that they don't want their parents involoved with school matters, parents' involvement proved to be

a significant influence on special education students' self-esteem.

Special education students' cognitive and social development must be considered when developing a self-esteem geered curriculum. Knowledge of special education students' placement on the cognitive and social development continuum enhanced the interaction between the student and significant others. Adolescence was an evolving developmental stage. An awareness, of where students were, enabled augmentation to occur. Cooperatively parents and teachers encouraged students to continue to grow and develop.

For self-esteem to be enhanced in special education students, three elements are warranted. First, a supportive, positive learning environment needed to be provided. Second, recognition of cognitive and social development by significant others must be on-going. Finally, curriculum should be permeated with teaching skills of coping, problem solving, and self-awareness and self-acceptance.

Further research needed to be done in four areas. The areas of measurements, definition, social support, achievement and strategies in relation to self-esteem. The correlational studies reviewed in this paper were interesting, perhaps enlightening, possibly helpful,

but also probably suspect. Two issues loomed large in the field of self-esteem research; imprecision of definitions in the field and the related concern of inappropriate instrumentation. Most notably definitions lacked the distinction between self-description and self-evaluation, a condition which has led to the interchangeable use of the terms self-concept and self-esteem. While these terms were conceptually related within the framework of self-perceptions, they were distinctly different dimensions. Research that interchanges self-concept and self-esteem must be considered questionable.

Instrumentation in the field of self-esteem has historically been a reactive nature. Various attributes and situations were imposed. Respondents indicated how they felt about themselves in regard to those attributes and situations. Questions arose as to the relevance of these attributes and situations to the respondents and if respondents think in terms of these dimensions. Perhaps developing a list of self-concept descriptors based on personal salience from asking students to tell about yourselves. Then asking students whether they wanted to keep or change each items referring to school. The latter question added the dimensions of self-esteem and value indicators.

Schools loomed large in the self-esteem of students. The relationship between self-esteem and achievement needed to be investigated to establish the influence of a third variable. Further reseacher needed to identify the third variable and determine the amount and kind of influence the variable had on the relationship between achievement and self-esteem. In researching the relationship between self-esteem and achievement, researchers also needed to clarify if global self-esteem or multidimensional self-esteem was being used in the research. Social support has also been suggested as the possible third variable, but research is needed to verify that relationship. Maternal support was singled out as influential in self-esteem. Further research was needed to determine if paternal support built self-esteem, when the father was the prime caregiver of the children either in single parent families or in role rerversal families. Role reversal families were families inwhich the mother worked outside the home and provided financial support for the family. Single parent families were families inwhich the mother was not present and involved with the family through death or by choice.

Teaching strategies have an impact on self-esteem. Further research is needed to establish which strategies provided a positive effect on

self-esteem development and which strategies had a negative effect on self-esteem. The strategies already identified as nonjudgmental activities and material, cooperative learning, and metacognition were suggested to have an influence, beyond the learning of content and needed to be studied further to clarify their effect and influence on self-esteem. Schools have the opportunity and the responsiblity to enhance the development of students, beyond the acquistion of facts. Therefore, further research on self-esteem in adolescents is compelled. The effect of schools on the self-esteem of special education students was important to preparing special education students for becoming productive, independent, and happy adults.

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